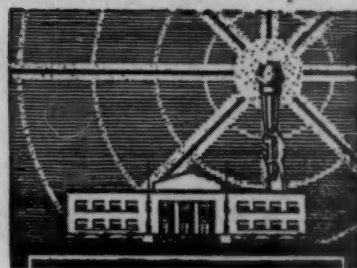


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VOLUME LII, NUMBER 7

DECEMBER, 1961

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The Social Studies

VOLUME LII, NUMBER 7

DECEMBER, 1961

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As The Editor Sees It

One of the more significant facts of present-day life is the universal distrust of existing leadership. Behind the Iron and Bamboo Curtains, today's leaders maintain their places only by the most drastic forms of controls, dramatized by such manifestations as the Berlin wall. No one can doubt what would happen if completely free elections were to be held in the communist countries. In non-communist nations, power politics play a major role in determining leadership, especially in Africa and Latin-America. And in the long-established democracies, such as France, Britain and the United States, there is perhaps less confidence among the mass of people in the wisdom of their leaders than has ever been true before. It is not that they doubt, in most cases, their sincerity and honesty of purpose. It is simply that they are afraid they cannot cope adequately with the magnitude, complexity and variety of problems before them. And the stakes today are so much greater, so all-encompassing, that we know that inadequate leadership can well be fatal to us all.

In the space of less than one normal life-span, what have man's political leaders produced? We have moved from a world of peace and general order at the turn of the century, through two terrible wars, involving tens of millions of lives and every land, into a period of perpetual crisis and universal fear. Diplomats dash madly from Vietnam to the Congo to Berlin. Nations exchange boastful threats of their ability to destroy the world, like small boys toeing a line with chips on their shoulders. And peaceful citizens, thousands of miles from any enemy, are being urged to construct bomb shelters in their homes. To such ends have the leaders of the twentieth century brought us.

It is not necessarily nor even probably true that contemporary leaders are any less wise or more greedy for personal power and advantage than their predecessors throughout the centuries. But technology has placed in their hands the means of acting with such speed and such power that every human error of judgment has consequences magnified a thousand times beyond the effects it could have had even a half century ago. The leader who is merely inept and provincial in his thinking and outlook can no longer get by through doing nothing; inaction and lack of decision today can be as fatal as positive actions based on wrong judgments.

Strong, wise and far-seeing leadership is the world's greatest need as never before. It is needed everywhere, and at every level of decision-making. The need begins in our towns and cities, at every local level; for national and world leaders come originally from the towns and from local politics. Therefore men, if they are to survive in this new and terrible world, will have to readjust their attitudes toward politics and public service as careers. We will need to take steps to encourage our greatest minds to enter these fields, instead of becoming scientists. This will involve a radical change of approach and of relative values, for no young genius is likely today to be attracted to politics or public administration. But the complexities and responsibilities of national leadership today are so great that they call urgently for the very keenest minds, trained in social thinking, and able to attack world problems with imagination, foresight and scientific objectivity. How each nation is to enlist the aid of such minds is the most pressing problem facing the world today. Whether it can be solved in time may well determine our collective fate.

Building a New State Framework for The Social Studies: A Look at Initial Processes

LLOYD E. BEVANS

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and

RICHARD E. GROSS

Stanford University

A new framework in social studies for grades kindergarten through junior college is now ready for use in California. It is the result of five years of intensive study by a large number of people working on a state-wide basis. It is the most extensive curriculum study ever undertaken in California and probably the most inclusive reworking of the social studies ever attempted in the United States at the state level.

The study was initiated in October of 1953 by the California Curriculum Commission when it was called upon to recommend new social studies books for adoption and use in grades kindergarten through eight in the elementary and junior high schools of the state. The Curriculum Commission is made up of persons who represent various public school positions in California. Since the materials selected for use in the early grades also affect instruction at all subsequent grade levels, the Curriculum Commission members believed that they would be well advised if they invited public discussion of the problems encountered in teaching the social studies at successive grade levels, kindergarten through junior college. They believed that they could make a better selection of text and supplementary books for use in grades kindergarten through eight after open discussion of the concerns held by people who work daily with the social studies and who represent the full range of grades that comprise the public school system in California. The Curriculum Commission members wished to find out particularly what adjustments in basic and supplementary books are needed at the elementary school level to make them most

useful on a state-wide basis in the elementary grades and supportive of social studies instruction at later grade levels. They, therefore, invited the Superintendent of Public Instruction to arrange for a meeting wherein a group of people representing various positions in public education, including teacher education, would have an opportunity to discuss the problems they encounter in teaching the social studies. The participants, they thought, should give attention to appropriate content and emphases, as well as to possible grade level allocations.

Approximately 120 people participated in the meeting called during October of 1953. The meeting resulted in a number of recommendations. The foremost suggestion called for a thorough and comprehensive study to be made of the entire social studies program, grades kindergarten through junior college. This recommendation was so broad that all others considered during the meeting were encompassed within it. The Curriculum Commission members realized that a study of the dimensions indicated by this recommendation could not be completed before the adoption date set for new social studies books in 1954. They, therefore, set the completion date for the study to be five years later (1959), and two years in advance of a later adoption date. This schedule for the study provided the possibility for outcomes from the study to be communicated to publishers well in advance of the projected adoption date.

It was believed that the time interval between completion of the study and the selection of new books would enable interested publishers to prepare the best possible ma-

terials called for by the study. It would be possible also for producers of audio-visual materials to use this interval of time to produce instructional materials that would help implement the new framework. Also, within local school districts instructional personnel would have time to study the new framework and begin the preparation of courses of study and detailed units. Social studies teachers would also have an opportunity to become intimately acquainted with the framework before receiving instructional materials based upon it.

In October of 1954 a 27-member committee was appointed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to conduct a thorough and comprehensive analysis of the entire social studies program. The Committee was composed of people who represent positions that are common in the public school system, grades kindergarten through junior college. Dr. Jay Davis Conner, Associate Superintendent of Public Instruction, was designated as Chairman and Dr. Lloyd E. Bevans, Consultant in the State Department of Education, was named Coordinator of the Committee.

At the beginning of its activity the Committee was made aware of the many resources available to it for conduct of the study, particularly in the colleges and universities of the state, and among interested community citizens. Just prior to this time a nationwide survey was made to locate other groups in the nation engaged in similar activity. The survey results and a report by the Chairman of the California Curriculum Commission were considered during the first meeting of the Committee, along with all recommendations from the earlier public hearing on social studies. With background information from these several sources the Committee decided to direct its efforts toward the preparation of a basic guide which would

serve as a frame of reference from which to derive content for the social studies in grades kindergarten through fourteen offer direction to the planning and development of social studies programs locally

indicate the interrelatedness of social studies with other areas of the curriculum

guide the selection of books and other instructional materials used in the social studies

suggest the best use of instructional materials

suggest the quality of preparation needed by social studies teachers, and acquaint interested lay citizens with the social studies program offered in the public schools of the State.

The concluding report of the Committee was to contain a new proposed framework for social studies, kindergarten through junior college. The Committee recognized that the central purposes of a framework are not the same as those for courses of study. They were aware that a social studies framework does not detail a program for any one local setting. They recognized that at least one additional step would be required in all local school systems to relate the framework to classroom instruction. This "bridging" step would require the preparation of courses of study and thus enable people locally to incorporate into the social studies those additional considerations and emphases that are necessary to provide for the particular needs of local communities.

Since it was recognized that the social studies contribute directly to the understandings which young people acquire regarding the total society in which they live and the roles they have in it as individuals, it was decided that all interested people in the state should be invited to help develop the new framework statement. The Committee believed that within our society this area of the public school curriculum which deals so directly with preparation for citizenship should not be dealt with alone by one small group of people. This decision to invite the active participation of all interested persons on a state-wide basis called for the establishment of channels for communication with various educational and lay organizations over the entire state. Fifteen organizations of public

school educators representing all levels of public education were invited to work with the Committee, as were 11 organizations of social scientists, and 14 organizations of lay citizens. Illustrative of those included in the latter group were the State Chamber of Commerce, the California Taxpayers Association, the National Association of Manufacturers, the California State Federation of Labor (AFL-CIO), the California Congress of Parents and Teachers, the California School Boards Association, and other organizations with a declared interest in public education. The American Association of University Women was one of the most active groups of lay citizens. In addition to establishing contact with 39 organizations, the Committee also invited interested individuals to take an active part in the study. All participants were provided with information about each step in the study through a system of state-wide reporting, interim bulletins, articles published in local periodicals such as *California Schools*, and correspondence. All participants were invited to communicate directly with the Committee in ways that seemed appropriate. This often resulted in Committee members appearing before interested groups of people to explain progress in the study and to point out ways that individuals and groups could contribute to its further development.

It was decided early in the study to examine the contribution of the various social sciences to the social studies. Individual social scientists representing each of eight disciplines—history, geography, political science, economics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, and philosophy—were invited to present what is fundamental within each of their respective disciplines that all young people should understand by the time they complete their public school education in order for them to be able to meet their citizenship obligations in a competent manner. The social scientists were asked to present these “large ideas,” or goals of understandings, by reference to the maturity level of young adults, not by reference to any one grade or educational level in the public school system. It was

a difficult task for the social scientists to weigh and decide on the concepts and generalizations that are important for all young people to understand by the time they complete their public school education.

This trial approach involving individual social scientists proved to be so rewarding that the Committee decided to invite groups of social scientists to meet with educators and lay citizens to indicate each discipline’s contribution to a modern program of social studies. To make this possible four regional conferences were organized in which social scientists from over the entire state within each of the eight disciplines were invited to present their ideas to a selected group of educators and lay citizens. Over one thousand people took part in these four regional conferences. The statements of fundamental social learnings were ultimately refined and appear as 120 generalizations in the final framework report.

The outcomes from the four conferences were included in a progress report which was distributed state-wide during May of 1956. The report invited study of the material gathered from the social sciences and invited comments concerning possible next steps in the study. At this time contact was made also with all of the colleges and universities in California that are accredited for teacher education. All colleges and universities accredited for teacher education were invited to participate actively in the work ahead, particularly by means of organizing and conducting co-sponsored summer workshops and conferences. The Superintendent of Public Instruction at this time also addressed a letter to the district and county superintendents of schools in the State to point up the opportunities they would have during the period ahead to help shape a new framework for the social studies.

The “large ideas” derived from the social sciences, and other pertinent information, were included in a progress report which was distributed in 20,000 copies during the summer and fall of 1957. Workshops were held on 17 campuses during the summer of 1957

with 22 colleges and universities taking part. Approximately 800 people from local school districts, many with part or all of their expenses paid by their local school districts, enrolled in the workshops. The participants in each workshop were invited to consider carefully all materials gathered to date and they were encouraged to invite the participation of an additional number of specialists in the social sciences to help evaluate and offer suggestions that would improve any of the materials included in the second progress report. Also participants in the workshop were invited to consider the beginning of a statement on growth, development, and learning, relative to the social studies. The 17 workshop reports received at the end of the summer of 1957 were examined carefully by the Committee to discern any need for modification of existing materials, and to note suggestions relative to next steps in the study.

The need to concentrate on growth, development and learning caused the Committee to organize during the fall of 1957 a series of meetings with specialists in human growth, development, and learning somewhat similar to those held with specialists in the social sciences. In each of these two segments of the study—the social sciences and growth, development and learning—an attempt was made to gather that information with which groups of specialists would agree. Seeking agreement within the groups of participating specialists seemed the best way to insure balance in the statements derived from these specialized areas.

During the spring of 1958 representatives of the publishing industry with interest in the preparation of social studies materials were invited to meet in Los Angeles. At this meeting the publishers had an opportunity to become acquainted with the purposes of the study, with progress to date, and with the time schedule for its completion. They were invited to consider the preparation of printed materials that would help to implement the completed framework statement.

Also during the spring of 1958 the infor-

mation gathered from specialists in growth, development, and learning and the generalizations gathered from the social sciences were organized into a progress report for further study by people on 20 college and university campuses during the summer of 1958. Approximately 700 people from local school districts took part in the 1958 summer activity. The workshop participants were invited to review all materials developed to that time and to give initial attention to a sequence of grade level allocations, kindergarten through junior college.

One additional workshop was held during the summer of 1958 to enable producers of audio-visual materials to meet with curriculum specialists and administrators of audio-visual programs from large school systems to study the implications of the emerging framework for the preparation of audio-visual materials. Attention was given particularly to the preparation of criteria that would help producers to prepare most appropriate instructional materials for the new social studies program.

All of the 1958 workshop reports were examined carefully during the fall of that year. From them the Committee formulated the beginning of an allocations statement which was to be extended later to a large number of people for further consideration. Since it was thought that this step in the study was of special interest to classroom teachers, the Committee arranged for 12 regional conferences to deal with this phase of the study. Successful experience with present allocations was to be one factor considered in the preparation of the new allocations statement. Approximately 4,000 people participated in the 12 regional conferences and the Committee received much help from them in shaping this part of the report. At this time a special consultant was also appointed for the Committee; Dr. Richard E. Gross of Stanford University was secured to advise on the concluding stages of their study and to edit the framework report.

The participants in the foregoing phase of the study soon became aware that a grade

level allocation by itself serves little purpose. A single allocation, such as study of the United States in the eleventh grade, means very little unless it is accompanied by areas of emphasis and content synopses that indicate what within this grade level allocation is judged to be of most importance. In addition, details of previous and subsequent grade level allocations must be available and considered. Therefore, besides deciding upon appropriate grade level allocations, the participants suggested appropriate areas of emphasis and content synopses. The central concern always was one of selecting, from the vast amount of material that could be classified as social studies, the content and emphases that would contribute most to the purposes of the social studies. Thus, the total statement of grade level allocations was designed to provide an effectual and timely sequence of study through the several grades, kindergarten through junior college. Since the goals of understanding in the framework statement are contained within the generalizations derived from the social sciences, the grade level allocations serve mainly as indicators to goals of understanding whose appropriateness for each grade level needs to be ascertained by those who use them. The information relative to growth, development, and learning is offered as a guide to help place ideas derived from the social science generalizations.

During the spring of 1959 the materials from all sources—the conferences, workshops, and correspondence—were assembled for editorial review by scholars and leaders in the specialized fields. For instance, all written materials and comments received relative to any one phase of the study, such as in one of the eight social sciences, were turned over to a specialist in that particular field for editorial review. Again, academicians willingly devoted valuable time and energy to the study. When professional people realized that their participation afforded them an opportunity to contribute to the citizenship education of children and youth, they contributed full measure.

With the above reviews completed, the Committee met in May, 1959, to study reactions to its latest tentative statement of allocations and to develop details of its final report. A revision of the first draft of this concluding report was studied by a number of people with varying responsibilities for the social studies in a final co-sponsored workshop at Stanford University during the summer of 1959. The workshop was attended by specialists in teacher education, curriculum planning and development, school administrators, college professors, and social studies teachers. The consensus seemed to be that the report was complete enough for local schools and districts to receive guidance from it without any feeling of constriction regarding its use.

In the fall of 1959 the State Central Committee on Social Studies developed the complete draft of its report and submitted the framework statement to the State Curriculum Commission. A five-year state-wide program of curriculum development had reached its climax and, meanwhile, it had involved thousands of Californians concerned with the future of social education in their schools. However, in spite of the time span and number of people involved, the great bulk of varied specifics of social studies learnings that are to be experienced by pupils in California schools during the next ten years remain to be spelled out. The work of the Committee was actually just the initial phase of this attempt in curricular development. And the real proof of these efforts will come with: the amount of agreement as to essentials, attained in courses of study throughout the state; the ease in which the indicated, over-all allocations are built into local programs; the production of more satisfactory textual resources; and the continuing and large-scale involvement of social studies teachers in building detailed units and developing appropriate instructional materials. Thus, the virtue of the process will be fully indicated only when varied, successful aspects of the implementation of the social studies framework become apparent.

A Synthesis of American History and Contemporary Problems

JAMES L. BARTH

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The required course of American History in some high schools has not made and is not making sense to either the high school students who must take it or to the teachers who must teach it. What explains this situation, and what can be done to correct it?

Most high school students no longer blindly accept a course because some authority has required it of them. In every class, of course, there are a few students who are academically oriented and will accept American History courses as prerequisite to higher education, but a majority of students find it difficult to see in history any close relationship with their immediate and future life. Students are encouraged to think for themselves and this has naturally led to an inquiry about the subject itself. They ask why? Why is American History a prerequisite to graduation? History has not demonstrated its relation to our lives as dramatically as have the sciences or math, or written and spoken expression. The students' request for the answer to "why American History" cannot be ignored nor explained by evasive answers that speak of citizenship and general knowledge. It seems reasonable that if all students are required to take American History, then the teacher is obligated to make explicit the relation between history and the real-life problems of the students and to base the content of the course upon this theme.

Teachers often have the problem of completing the survey by the end of the year; thus the students do not have the time to see the relationship between the consequences of past experiences and present-day decisions. History is one of the major tools which are used in making political, social and

economical decisions in our lives. Personal involvement may help students to accept history as a serious and useful study. The problem here is neither new nor revolutionary, and it is with justification that history teachers say yes, this is true, but how can it be accomplished?

One method adopted at Ohio State University School to bring about pupil involvement has come to terms with these problems. Perhaps a review of the method will suggest useful revisions to others. The course naturally divides itself into two major parts. Part I consists of the survey and is organized around central problem questions which demand of each student that he read history with this central theme in mind. It is important to note that as a scheduling technique only three quarters of the school year are spent on Part I, thus the remainder of the year is left for practical application in Part II. It is obvious that the limitation of time for Part I eliminates a complete review of the subject but rather much is left to the discretion of the teacher in choosing what makes sense to him and his class as study topics.

One of the critical stages in the development of this method of teaching American History is the initial survey itself. The method used in the survey becomes the training ground where the student practices critical thinking on problem questions. American History seems to break itself rather naturally into periods, and each period has its own peculiar characteristics. The student reads to find meaningful insights within problems of the period rather than merely reading from chapter to chapter without a

central point or question to guide him. Essentially this is the problem-solving technique using scientific methods to investigate historical questions. The role of American History in this method is to raise conflicts and challenges and to seek for new and meaningful insights in the solution of problems. Two examples of the type of question which have been successful as central themes and which may be helpful in understanding the writer's approach to American History are as follows. See the appendix, Part I, for additional examples.

Before the Spanish-American War, American policy was to follow Washington's advice to remain isolated from world affairs. To enforce the policy of isolation for the Western Hemisphere America issued the Monroe Doctrine. After the Spanish-American War opinion in Europe was that America was no different from all the other land-grabbing colonial powers. American officials denied that America was like other world powers—that is that America was not an imperialist nation.

Write an essay in which you examine the evidence for and against the American denial that it was an imperialist power. Be sure to conclude your essay with your own opinion on this subject in terms of the evidence you have presented.

The New Deal had been criticized by some historians, political scientists, Republican party members and many others as being radical and destructive of the American Way. The New Deal's (under F.D.R.) major concern was, as you know, the recovery and reform of business. List the reform and recovery measures undertaken by the New Deal. Now that you have done this evaluate the criticism made at the beginning of this question.

Part II features both a summing up of the major concerns of the past and an investigation of current national and international problems in the light of history. Examples of the kinds of problems that can be significant and help the student sum up his learning throughout the survey have been called the "What Have We Learned?" series. This series consists of five general-area questions which demand that the student use the history he has learned. Although the num-

ber and kind of questions asked in this series may vary, the following is one example of general-area questions that have been used for the "What Have We Learned?" series. For examples of the other general-area questions, see the appendix, Part II.

Consider with me the numerous wars that the United States has started or entered. Include in your thinking these wars: War of 1812, Mexican War, Civil War, Spanish-American War, World War I, World War II, Korean War. Have we Americans learned some lessons from these wars?

Instructions: Write an essay on the topic, "What Have We Learned from War?" Be sure to include in your discussion of this topic evidence (examples taken from the various wars that are mentioned above) to support your conclusions. This will not be an easy topic to write on, and as you know, there is no correct answer.

This method seems to answer the problem raised, and it is sufficiently flexible to engage the interest of students and the ingenuity of the instructor. The whole course is an answer to the question, "Why is American History important?" The two parts demonstrate that history is necessary as one of the sources of evidence in making contemporary decisions.

The student should be constantly reminded that the work he does in answering the problem questions in the survey will be indispensable as a source of reference for looking at contemporary problems. Consequently work throughout the survey is meaningful because the student knows that his prior work will be useful in the future, and he is conscious that he is developing in the process of problem solving. Using the method of critical examination throughout the course makes students conscious of conflicts in history. Implicit in this method is the teacher's obligation to constantly review the reasons for conducting the course in that method. It is not to be left up to the student's imagination as to what the teacher is doing.

This method eliminates the lagging survey so that the teacher never arrives at the end of the year without consideration of con-

temporary problems which after all represent for most students their major interest in history. Having studied economic problems throughout the survey of American History as well as problems of war and social justice, students find the current problems much more understandable, for their exposure to the problem as it grew in American History in some way makes our present problems more real and vital to them. Perhaps the two most important features of this type of program are that: (A) it can be applied to all history survey courses; and (B) it permits the teacher considerable flexibility in terms of subject matter and regional differences.

APPENDIX

Part I

You and a friend of yours are watching a newscast on T.V. The friend, having watched a film strip on labor racketeering, ventures the opinion that the labor movement in America had tended to hold America back industrially by causing destructive strikes. He also states that he has never known a labor leader who was not a "dirty crook." He concluded by stating that all labor organizations are the work of the devil and ought to be destroyed. It is now your turn to answer your friend.

You may agree with your friend.

You may disagree with your friend.

You may take any position which you wish to defend.

Write an essay explaining why you answered your friend as you have.

In terms of what you know of political parties in the United States, would you admit the Communist charge that American political parties are actually the same and therefore do not give the American people a real choice? (Needless to say, this question will test your ingenuity in answering a very important question.)

The League of Nations, as we all know, failed to accomplish its major objective (the prevention of war). There are many reasons for the League's failure, but this becomes important to us as students of American

History as we learn from these past mistakes.

Write an essay in which you review the weaknesses of the League and (perhaps the most important part of the essay) speculate on how the League might have been strengthened to prevent the weaknesses which eventually destroyed it.

If you were of voting age in 1920 and had an opportunity to vote in the presidential election of that year, which candidate (in terms of what you know now) would you vote for (Harding or Cox)?

Be sure to include in your essay a full discussion of the candidates' platforms. You might ask yourself which candidate most likely represents your feeling on issues now.

From the election of Harding to the end of Hoover's administration there was a conscious attempt to return the country to the "old ways of doing things." An attempt, if you wish, to move away from Progressivism.

Write an essay in which you contrast the new conservatism of the 1920-30's and the Old Progressive Era from 1900-1918.

Part II

Consider with me the U. S. economic system. We have talked in class about the boom and bust (depression-recession) cycle which America has experienced since the American Revolution. You should be familiar with these depressions; 1785, 1818, 1920, 1929; and these recessions; 1951, 1958.

Question: Have we learned to control our economic system so that much of the harm wrought by the business cycle has been modified?

Instructions: Write an essay on the question. Be sure to include in your essay evidence to support your general statements. To answer this question be sure that you know what causes depressions and recessions and what methods are used today to fight depressions and recessions.

Consider with me the growth of social welfare legislation which we first noted during the Progressive Era. At the turn of the century American citizens were not affected by social legislation. Each man was responsi-

ble for his own survival. Each of us today is directly affected by guarantees of minimum living standards. Some of these guarantees are: minimum wages, regulation of hours and working conditions, provision for social security, workingman's compensation and unemployment insurance.

Question: The American people have steadily moved from the turn of the century to the present from the idea that each man shall survive according to his own abilities to the idea that each citizen should be guaranteed certain minimum living standards. From what you know of the Progressive Movement and its relation to social reform, would you say that the U.S. is going to continue to set minimum standards which are considered necessary for the good life?

Instructions: Write an essay that shows the development of social legislation from the turn of the century to the present. Include in your essay as part of the conclusion what, in your opinion, would be the minimum living standards that will be demanded by the public in the future.

There are two parts to this question:

A. Trace in general terms the theory upon which American foreign policy has been based from the time of President Washington to the present.

It might be helpful to remember that, in general, American policy in Asia has been different from that in Europe. Also you might think in terms of Isolationism and Internationalism as the two major positions when answering question A.

B. Do you approve of U. S. general foreign policy as it exists today? If so, why? If not, why not?

The U. S. has been plagued for years by a number of persistent problems such as farm prices, bigness of big business, labor unions, segregation.

Instruction: Choose one of these problems and write an essay in which you point out what exactly the problem is—how the problem is being solved—and how successful the solution has been. As the final paragraph of your essay note how you would solve the problem.

The Rationale of Economic Theory

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Introduction

The purpose of this paper* is to make explicit the usefulness of economic theory. Briefly, it may be said that the rationale of economic theory is the existence of certain types of social problems and that the relevant social problems involve decisions regarding the altering of an economic system.

In order to explain the role of economic theory in social decision-making, it is necessary to consider the nature of an economic system, the meaning of economic analysis, the characteristics of an economic problem, and the relationship among the three. It is to these matters that we now turn; and it

may be noted in passing that the sense in which economics is a social science is that it deals with social problems.

The Nature of an Economic System

Any system consists of (1) a physical environment, (2) one or more persons who are the "operators," and (3) a set of rules that restrain, constrain, and prescribe the activities of the operators. Thus, an economic system may be defined as a set of rules, e.g., legislative acts, judicial decrees, and executive proclamations, that restrain, constrain, and prescribe the economic activities of the individuals within a society whose physical environment is given. The important thing

to note insofar as economics or, better, political economy is concerned is that an economic system implies a set of rules, and that each such set of rules constitutes a separate system. Altering in any way a given set of rules, brings into being a different economic system.

Given a set of restraints, constraints, and prescriptions, the individuals within a society are free to choose any rules of action that they believe to be consistent with their ends. That is to say, only the set of rules which constitutes the economic system limits the economic activity of individuals which have as their purpose the attainment of private ends or the private ends attainable by individuals.

The group within a society that selects the rules which constitute the economic system is the decision-making agency of that society. In a free society, the very individuals whose actions are to be limited or directed comprise the decision-making body. That is to say, in a free society, the restrictions, compulsions, and directives relating to the activities of individuals are voluntarily imposed even though, as a matter of expediency, this may be done through elected representatives. Since men do not seem to be disposed to impose a large number of restrictions on their activities, it is no surprise that, in a free society, many courses of action are open to the individual and many choices are made by him. Traditionally and, it would appear, necessarily, economic theory applies to free or relatively free societies.

The Nature of Economic Analysis

By definition, an economic good¹ is scarce. That is to say, any good for which the amount available is less than the amount desired is an economic good. Economic quantities, e.g., costs, prices, quantities exchanged, income, and employment, relate to the characteristics of economic goods for which measurement is possible. A set of values for economic quantities at a given point in time and over time constitutes the working properties or performance characteristics of an economic system. Economic

analysis involves describing or explaining and, consequently, predicting the process by which such values come about.

As with all types of analysis, economic analysis is made up of definitions, postulates, and theorems inferred therefrom. More specifically, given an economic system, assuming certain private ends on the part of individuals, and assuming certain "fundamental" relationships among certain economic variables, economic analysis consists of describing, in a manner which is internally consistent, the process by which the values for economic quantities come about.

Economic analysis, as is true of any type of analysis which purports to be other than merely a process of classification, is conceptual in nature. However, for an analysis to be at all meaningful, there must be real-world counterparts. This is not to say that the real thing must be precisely described in order for the description to be useful. In this context, it may be said that the analytical conditions must be analogous to real-world conditions, and that economic analysis deals with simplifications of real-world conditions or, perhaps better, the construction of "models" which approximately describe real-world conditions.

It is indeed fortunate that economic theory need not describe precisely its real-world counterparts, since the complexity of the real world, the nature of the individual,² and the inadequacies of the tools and techniques of description preclude precise description. Of course, whether or not a given economic model actually does approximately describe the real world is a matter of empirical verification. However, it may be noted that empirical verification can do no more than make one feel more comfortable regarding the applicability of the given model, because all such proofs involve intellectual "leaps."³

The Essence of an Economic Problem

Every problem comes into being when the appropriate decision-making body begins to feel that "something is wrong," that "something ought to be done." Such a feeling is

induced by observing the operation of the thing about which decisions are to be made. But, the essence of a problem is the process of choosing; and, in order for a choice to be made, alternatives must exist. In this way, problems are distinguished from matters of fact: if there is no alternative, there is no problem, since, without alternatives, no choice can be made.

In addition to alternatives, the making of a choice requires the application of criteria. The criteria may be well-defined goals or merely the preferences of the decision-making body. Nevertheless, alternatives are ordered in accordance with such criteria; and the solution to a problem follows from the ordering of alternatives.

Similarly, an economic problem comes into being when, in observing the working properties of an economic system, the decision-making agency of a society begins to feel that the behavior of values for economic quantities is undesirable, and that a more desirable performance might be obtained by "fixing" the system. Consequently, alternative systems are proposed, and their working properties are analyzed (predicted). In choosing between alternative economic systems, decision makers must order or arrange alternatives on the basis of preference; and the solution to the problem follows from the ordering of the alternatives.

It is to be noted that an economic problem, unlike a technical problem, does not involve the application of well-defined goals or ends as criteria. Furthermore, there is no such thing as a solution to an economic problem which is good for all time. Presumably, any given economic system is being constantly evaluated in terms of proposed alternatives.

The Role of the Economist

Essentially, the job of the economist, i.e., the political economist, is to describe the working properties of alternative economic systems. That is to say, the economist is fundamentally a technician. However, as a specialist in economic systems, the economist is often called upon or relied upon to recommend policy or, what is the same thing, to

recommend changes in the rules that constitute the economic system. Furthermore, it is quite possible that the preferences of the economist are often given more weight than that of a "layman," i.e., one who is not so well informed about the working properties of alternative economic systems. Nevertheless, unless the economist is indeed the decision-making agency of the society, he is to be regarded as little more than a technician.

At first glance, the job of the economist would seem to be an almost impossible one for three reasons: (1) there would appear to be no end to the number of possible alternative economic systems; (2) the mere listing of all of the variables that conceivably could be classified as economic would be a major undertaking; and (3) the relationships among even the most important economic variables are not fully known. It follows that predictions regarding the values of economic quantities under alternative economic systems must be extremely tentative; and it is almost redundant to say that, in this matter, caution is indeed a virtue.

Nevertheless, the existence of difficulty and ignorance does not eliminate the necessity of the decision-making agency of a society choosing between alternative systems—a decision not to change the system involves the making of a choice. Moreover, when a proposed set of rules and its supposed working properties are made explicit, a critical evaluation of the proposed system is made possible. Finally, to the extent that our very incomplete knowledge permits, predictions may be limited to those seemingly more important quantities whose values are most likely to be affected. But, in this regard, it would seem reasonable to require a proponent of an alternative system to predict the value of any economic quantity whatsoever in the process of evaluating a proposed system. Because of these reasons, economic analysis and a study of currently accepted economic models, given their limitations, would appear to be well justified.

* The discussion in this paper follows largely an approach developed by D. Rutledge Vining in his *Economics in the United States of America* (Paris: UNESCO, 1956).

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¹ Economic goods are classified as either commodities or services. The former have physical properties, whereas the latter do not.

² Economic theory deals with the behavior of the individual, which is, partly at least, unpredictable, since human beings have free will. Cf. Frank H. Knight, "What is Truth' in Economics?," *Journal of Political Economy*. Vol. XLVIII, No. 1 (February, 1940).

³ Empirical verification is essentially the testing of an hypothesis, which can be "proved" true at a given level of probability; thus, an economic model can never be accepted without reservation.

The Different Views About the Pullman Strike of 1894

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"I presume that if I had lived in Chicago instead of Pullman, and knew nothing about the Pullman strike except what I read in the leading Chicago newspapers, I would have raised my hand in holy horror against these wicked Pullman strikers and all belonging to their side, and would have sustained Mr. Pullman and his company. . . ."

—WILLIAM CARADINE, 1894.

PREFACE

It was the intention of the present writer to present a broad narrative of the background causes, the nature, and the significance of the Pullman Strike. In this process he presented conflicting opinions relative to the nature and significance of the conflict. It should be noted, however, that some of the opinions favorable to labor were made by contemporaries of the strikers, some of these writers having been working men themselves. On the other hand, the early opinions unfavorable to labor and friendly to Pullman and the President were, for the most part, made by professional men—historians, a lawyer, and the Pullman officials themselves.

The paper, in itself, may be called a comparative narrative, in which unfavorable views were put against favorable views regardless of the period in which the authors wrote. An understanding of the general change from unfavorable to favorable opinions of labor, on the part of the *legitimate historians*, may be gained by checking the footnotes and bibliography for the date of publication of the work — unfavorable opinions being early historians; favorable opinions, with publication dates after the nineteen twenties, being later historians.

The fury with which labor and capital battled in 1894 was the outgrowth of years of mutual distrust and hate; from the dawn of the industrial revolution the interests of the two had clashed repeatedly. The bitter strikes and "cataclysmic upheavals of labor" resolved themselves into an attempt on the part of the employees to "improve a standard of living which too often bred tragedy, suffering, and despair." Entrepreneurs of the nineteenth century enjoyed great financial success, but in large measure "they failed to understand or appreciate the laborer as he evolved from the domestic worker and sought

in unions the only real hope of escaping from the tenors of poverty."¹

For many years the underlying causes for discontent had to a large degree remained dormant in the model town of Pullman, Illinois, finding expression only in sporadic instances. But the workers showed no organized resentment until the summer of 1893, when an economic depression settled over the country. At first the company laid off all but 900 men, but the securing of additional contracts enabled the company to rehire most of the men, but at reduced wages.² Therefore, in the face of starvation wages, ushered in by the panic of 1893, "all grievances were fused into a spirit of violent resistance against a corporation which the employees had come to distrust, fear and hate . . . The grievances thus became cumulative, some of which related to the operation of the model town and others of which involved the policy of the company toward labor."³

According to Lindsey, "paternalism"—the very basis of the Pullman experiment—was a source of constant annoyance to the inhabitants. "The lack of freedom, the persistent surveillance of the Pullman officials, and the numerous restrictions imposed upon the tenants served to develop a feeling of antagonism toward the Pullman Company."⁴ But, on the other side of the fence, in official statements before the United States Strike Commission in 1894, Pullman said:

"No paternalism has ever been in the plan. Reasonable rents were fixed which were not increased in times of increased wages, nor have they been lowered to the level of those in unpleasant parts of Chicago, or to the level of those charged in the adjacent country for cheaply built houses without sewage, and on streets unpaved and uncleaned. It was the hope and belief of the management that the character of the buildings, and houses and streets at Pullman and the order in which they are kept, would raise the standard of desire of working people for such surroundings; and that such surroundings would improve their character as citizens, and the quality of their work."⁵

The above statement may or may not have

been made in good faith, but what Mr. Pullman and associates probably overlooked was a little matter of democratic procedure in city government. Lindsey, writing far enough from the event to gain a better perspective of the whole matter said: "The absence of democracy was obviously a basic weakness, and the development of civic pride was difficult under the existing political conditions. Had a free unhampered society been established, privileged to work out the solution of its own political and social problems, the history of the model town would have taken another and perhaps more successful course. The town of Pullman was literally forced into a political straight jacket. . . ."⁶ "The absence of democracy in almost every phase of the experiment could not have been welcomed by the Pullman employees, whose sense of independence was as keen as that of any labor group."⁷

Although the failing Pullman experiment was a basic or underlying factor for discontent, the principal cause of the strike of 1894 was a radical reduction of wages fostered by the aforementioned depression in business conditions. "Adhering to a philosophy of business that was extremely hard and realistic, George Pullman could understand only one way to meet the situation in the profit-losing division and that was to slash wages to the minimum."⁸ But it must be noted that throughout this period, no salaries of the officers, managers, or superintendents were reduced, and the company "continued to pay its 8 percent dividends on an exaggerated capitalization."⁹ And, according to Yellen, "there could be no doubt that the company maintained its high dividends throughout the economic crisis by grinding its employees between high rents and low wages."¹⁰

A short time after the widespread reductions in wages, a committee of employees "waited upon Mr. Pullman to ask that the old wages be restored." Mr. Pullman refused this request, but promised that he would not "punish any member of the committee for having presented the petition. This promise he apparently violated; for on

the very next day, three of the committee were discharged. . . . indignant at his action, five-sixths of his men went out on strike. Mr. Pullman promptly discharged the other sixth. . . ."¹¹

In an official statement, the President of the Pullman Company had this to say concerning the firing of the three committee members, and the resultant strike caused thereby:

"Testimony has been given before the Commission that the immediate cause of the strike was the discharge of three employees contrary to the assurance I had given to the committee of workmen that none of them should be affected by their serving on the committee. . . . There were forty-three members of the committee at the conference on May 9, and on May 10 it happened that in temporarily 'laying off' men for whom there was no immediate work, three men were included who were said to have been on the committee, as to each of whom the subordinate officials concerned deny that they at the time knew he was on the committee and say that the laying off was caused by nothing but the ordinary course of business. . . ."¹²

It was probably an easy matter for the Pullman Company to wiggle out of this accusation by coercing the subordinate officials to "testify right," but the fact remained that the great strike had begun.

Speaking of the principal strikes in the years preceding 1895, Swinton, an early friend of labor, said: "There has not been among them all one of wider extent or affecting more persons and interests, or of a more impressive nature, or of more unselfish purpose, than the strike of the brave young American Railroad Union, in the summer of 1894, under the masterly leadership of its president, Eugene V. Debs. . . . Some of the features of this colossal, though brief, campaign must forever stand out in the history of the ever-renewed struggle of labor for freedom during the last half of the Nineteenth Century."¹³ The enduring importance of the 1894 strike was brought out as late as 1934 by Adamic; he said, "The strike in

itself was a comparatively small affair, but it led to the greatest labor uprising in the history of the United States."¹⁴ Caradine, the well-known and outspoken Pastor of the First M. E. Church at Pullman, Illinois, had this to say concerning the uprising of labor:

"The Pullman strike is the greatest and most far-reaching of any strike on record in this country. It is the most unique strike ever known. When we take into account the intelligence of the employees, always the boast of the Pullman Company . . . it is no wonder that the world was amazed, when under such apparently favorable conditions, in the midst of a season of great financial depression, the employees laid down their tools, and on the 11th of May, walked out of the great shops to face an unequal and apparently hopeless conflict."¹⁵

There are many different interpretations as to how the Federal Government became "mixed up" in the controversy, and the legality of its involvement. According to Lindsey, a vital part of the strategy of the General Managers Association was to draw the United States Government into the struggle and then make it appear that "the battle was no longer between the workers and the railroads but between the workers and the government." The steps taken by the general managers to create the proper conditions favorable for Federal intervention "cannot be appraised accurately, since they involved a subterfuge." But it was easily seen that during the early phases of the crisis it was the policy of the roads "not to alleviate the inconveniences in transportation but rather to aggravate this condition wherever possible in order to arouse the anger of the traveling public and thus hasten action by Federal authorities."¹⁶ This point was also brought out by Browne, who said that the railroad managers in Chicago deliberately conspired to prevent State intervention and to secure Federal intervention, as the most effective means of breaking the strike and destroying the American Railroad Union. "The Federal Government instead of acting in its proper capacity as a neutral agency upon request

of and in cooperation with the State government, deliberately and contemptuously ignored the State authorities, threw all its resources on the side of one of the combatants, and worked hand-in-glove with the illegal General Managers Association to effect the latter's purposes."¹⁷ Again, along this latter trend of thought, Swinton believed, also, that the G. M. A. "resorted to sundry dishonorable devices" to bring the strikers into conflict with the Federal Government, "the aid of which they invoked, under false pretext that the mails had been interfered with, and on the ground that, as several of the principal roads were in the hands of Federal receivers, they were entitled to military protection. They realized that they were already beaten unless they could get the government to crush the strike. They were panic struck. Capitalists everywhere were trembling for their money bags."¹⁸

Strange as it may seem, there were some writers who allied themselves with the Pullman Company and the action of the President of the United States. Bancroft, in his treatment of the subject—parts of which were read before the Illinois State Bar Association at Springfield, January 24, 1895—said that, "The Chicago strike was a gigantic conspiracy to stop railroad transportation. No act done under such a conspiracy could be lawful. It was a deliberate and open defiance of the rights of private property, and the laws protecting them; a declaration that such laws must give way when they oppose the avowed moral rights of 'organized labor.' It was essentially an appeal to anarchy."¹⁹ Peck said that a great deal of the comment made concerning President Cleveland's despatching of troops to Illinois was "based upon a misapprehension of the facts. Many persons then imagined, and many still believe, that the President put a new and bold construction upon his own powers . . . such, however, was not the case. He was merely doing what he was empowered and even required to do by statute. . . ."²⁰

Most of the early "legitimate" historians tended also to shift the blame for the conduct

of the strike to the shoulders of the American Railroad Union leaders and Governor Altgeld of Illinois. James Ford Rhodes believed the city police and marshals were unable to preserve order; therefore, President Cleveland, "who had been carefully preparing for the emergency, ordered troops to Chicago." The troops were active in dispersing various mobs "but the President and law-abiding citizens were hampered by the attitude of the governor of Illinois, Altgeld, who was called 'the friend and champion of disorder.' Anarchy was threatened and the police of Chicago under the mayor, and the militia under the governor, seemed powerless to avert it."²¹ The author concluded that:

"The action of Cleveland in repressing this alarming disturbance is on a par with the best work of this kind accomplished by our presidents. In the precedent that it established, it amounts to something more. Olney furnished Cleveland with a powerful weapon in the new use of the injunction and expounded the law under which he was empowered to act after the Governor of Illinois had failed in his duty."²²

Garner and Lodge took a similar stand. They said: "It was clearly the duty of the state officials to preserve the peace and protect property, but they could not, or at all events did not . . . The governor of Illinois, Mr. Altgeld, neither made application to the president nor took adequate measures to suppress the disorders himself." Public sentiment was clearly with the President, and the Supreme Court later sustained the constitutionality of his course, "and," according to the authors, "posterity will no doubt give him the full meed of praise for his wise and vigorous action."²³

It seems that posterity has yet to acclaim Cleveland's action, because for many years later writers seem to have followed the lead of labor writers and sympathizers, contemporary to the strike period. Berman believed that: "Federal authorities should, as a matter of courtesy, have asked Gov. Altgeld for state troops as soon as they thought some military force was needed. This was never done. Secondly, the underlying as-

sumption of the administration was that the strike as such violated the law, an assumption which does not seem justified by the facts. The use of troops was partly based on this assumption and their use therefore, from that point of view, does not seem to have been entirely warranted."²⁴ Lindsey was just as firmly braced against the action of the government. He said that while maintaining the "pretence of complete impartiality in its operations," the United States Government "did precisely what was best calculated to bring victory to the railroads." The Federal authorities utilized all the "ponderous machinery of a powerful government, including injunctions and soldiery, to nullify completely the aims and activities of labor."²⁵ Again taking a slap at Cleveland and his intervention, Lindsey said, "To what extent United States' troops served in restoring conditions to normal long remained a controversial issue . . . Whatever the merits of the respective arguments, it seems evident that Illinois could have done very well without Federal aid; but it is equally true that this assistance proved a potent factor in the termination of the strike and the collapse of the American Railroad Union."²⁶

Further supporting the case of labor against the intervention of Cleveland and the government are the statements presented by the later historians Craven and Johnson of the University of Chicago. They believed until the Federal injunction had been issued, "Gov. Altgeld had the situation under control with state militia. . . . over his protests, the Federal troops came into Illinois." It was "clear from this action that the Federal government was supporting business against labor. . . ."²⁷

There was also much controversy concerning the use of the injunction against the strikers, and the subsequent conviction of Eugene V. Debs and other officials of the A. R. U. under its implications. Bancroft, a contemporary of the strike period, was heartily in favor of the measure. He said:

"... the argument against relief by injunction based on the criminality of the

acts, or on the large number of persons engaged in them, applies equally to suits by individuals for the protection of their property rights against such organized aggressors (the American Railroad Union). If the United States ought not to invoke the aid of equity to protect its rights against the assaults of a multitude of conspirators, neither should the individual. There is certainly more danger to public and to private rights from such a rule than from the existing law which makes no distinction on account of the number of wrong-doers."²⁸

On the other hand, Berman, a later writer, pointed out that it should be noted that there was "no Federal law forbidding a sympathetic strike, nor was there one the intent of which was to forbid a railroad strike. The Union was within its rights under the law . . . and in its struggle with the General Managers Association it was entitled to some measure of consideration from a Federal government which was supposed to represent the interests of all the people."²⁹

In summing up his reaction to the different views presented, the present writer is inclined to agree with certain other writers in appraising the whole situation. Rev. Caradine expressed the present writer's opinions when he said, in referring to Mr. Pullman, that he had "nothing to say of him that savors of fulsome eulogy or nauseating praise."³⁰ "As all the facts come to light, it is plain that Mr. Pullman could have prevented the great strike . . . without sacrificing either his dignity or his money."³¹ The present writer also sees logic-judging from the standpoint of present "evolved" democracy—in the position of Burns concerning the injunction proceedings and Debs. He said the railroad managers and Federal courts were leaving "no stone unturned to secure the indictment and incarceration of E. V. Debs . . . These diabolical plotters never doubted for one instant that the officers of the American Railroad Union were innocent of the charges preferred against them." They knew very well that the officers "had no authority to order a boycott or strike, and

that it was ordered by a majority vote of the men employed on each system. . . . They must devise some scheme to shackle him or get him out of the way [shades of John L.!]”³² And furthermore, Burns continued, “The special grand jurors selected by the court for the express purpose of indicting the officers of the A. R. U. were well chosen . . . Debs, Howard, Rogers and Kelleher . . . those men were virtually indicted before the grand jury went into session, this is a fact that defies contradiction.”³³ The present writer looked through many materials for contradictions of the latter assumption, but no such opposing views were found. But, there was evidence to show that some of the principals in the grand jury trial were very friendly toward the Pullman interests.

The points presented by Berman concerning the undesirability of the injunction in the Pullman Strike are hereby presented because they seem to be logical, as well as similar to the opinions formed by the present writer. Berman said the use of the injunction was undesirable:

“ . . . (1) because it violated rights which American citizens have always regarded as guaranteed to them by the Constitution, (2) because it enabled an appointed official (Olney) to make the law for the people of the United States, (3) because the impossibility of its general enforcement subjected the courts to the likelihood of contempt and ridicule, (4) because it aroused the hostility of labor toward the government, (5) because it gave the stamp of approval by the government to a process which has since become a most important ally of employers in restricting the rights of workers to carry on activities ordinarily supposed to be their unquestionable privilege, (6) because it was obtained in several instances at the request of, and after conferences with, railroad managers, thus laying the administration open to the charge of being under the direction of the railroads.”³⁴

In conclusion, it can be said that the Pullman Strike was more than just an industrial clash; “it was an upheaval which shook the

Nation to its very depths and led to extraordinary applications of old laws and the creation of highly effective anti-labor weapons. In the heat of the struggle precedents were established that required long years to nullify.”³⁵

¹ Almont Lindsey, *The Pullman Strike*, pp. 1-2.

² Samuel Yellen, *American Labor Struggles*, p. 103.

³ A. Lindsey, *op. cit.*, p. 90.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

⁵ George M. Pullman and T. H. Wickes, *The Strike at Pullman . . .*, p. 24.

⁶ A. Lindsey, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 95-96.

⁹ S. Yellen, *op. cit.*, p. 103.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 105.

¹¹ Harry T. Peck, *Twenty Years of the Republic . . .* (1906 ed.), p. 377.

¹² Geo. Pullman and T. H. Wickes, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-11.

¹³ John Swinton, *A Momentous Question*, p. 79.

¹⁴ Louis Adamic, *Dynamite . . .*, p. 117.

¹⁵ William H. Caradine, *The Pullman Strike*, p. 2.

¹⁶ A. Lindsey, *op. cit.*, p. 142.

¹⁷ Waldo R. Browne, *Altgeld of Illinois*, pp. 151-152.

¹⁸ John Swinton, *op. cit.*, pp. 84-85.

¹⁹ Edgar A. Bancroft, *The Chicago Strike of 1894*, p. 67.

²⁰ Harry T. Peck, *op. cit.* (1929 ed.), p. 386.

²¹ James F. Rhodes, *History of the United States . . .*, p. 426.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 427.

²³ James W. Garner and Henry C. Lodge, *The United States*, p. 1003.

²⁴ Edward Berman, *Labor Disputes and the President of the United States*, p. 23.

²⁵ Almont Lindsey, *op. cit.*, p. 144.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 214.

²⁷ Avery Craven and Walter Johnson, *The United States . . .*, p. 460.

²⁸ E. A. Bancroft, *op. cit.*, p. 66.

²⁹ Edward Berman, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

³⁰ W. H. Caradine, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 29.

³² W. F. Burns, *The Pullman Boycott . . .*, pp. 100-101.

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 102.

³⁴ Edward Berman, *op. cit.*, pp. 33-34.

³⁵ A. Lindsey, *op. cit.*, p. 361.

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The Detective and His Notebook

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Although the use of notebooks has been abused, there is a definite place for them in our present program of education. Modern education recognizes that perhaps its most important task in a democracy is to teach youth how to think clearly both in a group and independently. Along with this must go the training in how to secure data from which to reason. If democracy is to endure, the citizenry must be able to think things out for itself. Our school courses should afford opportunities to develop thinkers. Then, too, the schools must provide opportunities for young people to learn how to do as well as to know. Initiative on the part of our young people should be developed and encouraged. In a well-planned course of study these qualities can be attained by guiding pupils to form and solve their own problems and by encouraging them to search various sources for information. This research requires the wise use of note-taking, and a notebook intelligently used during this gathering of pertinent information can be of great assistance in the pursuit of most studies, especially the social studies.

The writer has used in the past a so-called "self-starter" system of research in his classes. It is a combination of work and play and has really sold the pupils on the idea that

searching for information is necessary, yet interesting. Each pupil is encouraged to assume the viewpoint and method of a Federal Bureau of Investigation operative, a district attorney, or detective who is searching for the solution of some mystery or crime and uses his notebook to file away the data as it is obtained so it can be used for future reference (in solving of the class problem and class discussion). Acting as a detective the pupil learns to condense discriminately and to recognize facts. He is led to approach a new unit of study or problem as a detective would approach a mystery. With an open mind and his notebook, he begins looking for clues that might lead him to the discovery of the "corpse" or the solution of the "crime" or problem. All worthwhile ideas and pertinent bits of information wherever found are recorded in his notebook. The notebook helps him to organize his findings logically, weigh evidence, develop critical evaluations and reach conclusions. The class begins its detective work by being motivated into formulating some problem or case. The problem or case should be one that has aroused interest. The method of solving the problem can be varied but a good attack is a battery of interest questions built from challenging thoughts aroused by the problem. This

launches the pupils into a research for the data and information called for by these questions.

Too much cannot be said about the values to be derived from research. Perhaps the development of initiative to search things out for oneself, and acquiring the knowledge of how to find and use trusted source material are two of the important values. Yet research is a phase of training very often omitted from school courses. Contrary to what some educators believe, young people in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades and certainly the junior high school can be taught to do research of varying degrees of accomplishment in keeping with their age and grade. In the final analysis learning is really discovering. If this is true, how can research be postponed to the senior high school years?

Using the notebook is an important part of research and is best done under the supervision of the teacher in a period of supervised study. The best available books and source material can be gotten together and placed where the young people can easily use them. The teacher should advise and suggest where helpful material may be found, but only in special cases should he find the necessary information for his students. Nothing should be done that would detract from the fun of exploring and finding information. But, just as the mother eagle, who chases her young off the nest in order to get them to try their wings, dives down and catches them before they dash to pieces on the rocks beneath, so also should the teacher ever hover over and near to see that no one gets discouraged or becomes bogged down in a mass of obscure, meaningless source material.

Working from the standpoint of a detec-

tive the students soon develop the ability to condense information found and to record it in their notebooks. This condensing of subject matter should be done, of course, in their own words and not in the words of the author they are reading. This helps them to grasp and understand what they are reading and is really a test of how well they comprehend what is on the printed page. The art of condensing and shortening what others have said is difficult for some students but represents no great problem. It also contributes to the training given in their language arts in that it helps develop the ability to express themselves.

The notebook and the findings it contains should occupy a very important place during the class discussion, which ought always to follow the "detective" work and be of a democratic procedure. The data found forms the basis for the discussion. It is from this deliberation that final conclusions regarding the problem or case are arrived at and the verdict given. During the discussion it is a good thing for the pupils to leave their notebooks open in front of them so they can refer to them as they talk or use them in giving valuable information that their classmates might not have found. It is then that they often make the thrilling discovery that they have found something no one else in their class knows about. The detective approach to solving their own problems fills them with zest for their school work and makes their notebooks very necessary tools full of *qualitative* material rather than quantitative. Finally, this way of using a notebook teaches each member of a class "not what to think but how to think; not what to believe but how to earn a belief; not what to answer but how to find the answers."



An Interdisciplinary Approach to Education

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Recently, the dean of a large school of education said that he would not recommend for use by teachers in training a newly-published book on school integration. His reason was that such a book required an integrated approach to the social sciences which education students did not have. In view of the knowledge teachers need, the admission was a startling one. It would seem that the very essence of a teacher's professional knowledge involves an integration of the social sciences which alone can give the necessary understanding of human development and behavior.

The person engaged in the profession of teaching needs to know a great many things about himself and about the people he is teaching. He must be concerned with attitudes and feelings, group memberships and their effects, life experiences and their results. Sociology, psychology, social psychology, economics, cultural anthropology—all have vital data which the teacher must incorporate in his approach to his students.

The teaching profession has come under attack for a variety of reasons, not the least of which is that teachers are so concerned with their students that they are not adequately prepared in their subject matter areas. To pose these two—students and subjects—as alternative educational concerns is nonsense. The concerns are neither mutually exclusive nor are they matters for personal choice. The teacher must know his subject, and he must know the students to whom he wishes to communicate his special knowledge.

One of the problems involved in an inte-

grated approach to professional education lies in the way we study "subjects." Our knowledge is so rigidly compartmentalized that students of one discipline see nothing to be gained by communication with students of other disciplines. The resulting separation has prevented scholars from learning each other's language—until now, even those few who would like to participate in interdisciplinary conversations, are unable to do so without considerable preparation.

Intergroup relations attempt an integration of the social and behavioral sciences. For example, they are concerned with changing attitudes and behaviors and developing more appropriate reactions to familiar stimuli. Educators can learn from intergroup relations how to deal with children who fear strangers, avoid what is new and unfamiliar, categorically reject differences and are rigidly ethnocentric in their valuations.

There have been other attempts to integrate certain areas of study—long after they have splintered off from broader areas and developed as specialized disciplines. Social psychology is one such attempt that emerges with the realization that the study of groups on the one hand and the study of individuals on the other hand are sterile concerns without some understanding of the individual as he functions in groups—the person as he comprises groups. An important idea in teaching new responses is also found in social psychology: individuals function in groups and develop their attitudes and behaviors in group settings. The teacher who is aware of the influences of the poor group, the family, the community, can try to utilize these in-

fluences to positive ends, or to minimize them where they lead to undesirable behaviors.

An examination of some of the concepts which undergird the job of the teacher leads us inevitably to the conclusion that without sound interdisciplinary training the teacher is severely handicapped in his attempts to teach his subject, no matter how well prepared he is in it.

For example, awareness of social class differentials in values and behavior helps the teacher understand what is motivating the young people he is supposed to be teaching. The teacher who knows that lower-class children generally cannot understand the value of deferring immediate satisfaction for future gain will not attempt to "sell" them on education by preaching that this is the only way they can "make something of themselves." What he is doing is speaking in terms of his own values: *he* was willing to put off earning a living; *he* studied when he preferred to be having fun; *he* made sacrifices of immediate gratification in order to build a future. But lower-class children, remembering a disaster-ridden past and fearing an uncertain future, live for the present. What they need is many opportunities for gratification and success in the present—and this will carry them until they are convinced that they can build for the future.

It is social psychology which gives us this knowledge of the motivations of individuals from certain social classes. Without such knowledge we cannot obey the educational dictum that says, "we start with the child where he is" or the one that advocates a student-centered approach to education, or the one that counsels that teachers must know their students.

Sociology tells us that many lower-class Negro children live in matriarchal families, where the father is neither the influential figure nor the breadwinner that he is in middle-class families. How can we teach fourth-graders about the structure, functions, and relationships of the family in our society, unless we have these facts about families? And what of the teacher who pre-

sents the "ideal" family as consisting of father, mother and two or three siblings? To some children, confrontation with such an ideal may result in confusion and feelings of inferiority.

Nor can we understand the significance of the matriarchal family except in historical and cultural perspective. From a study of history we discover that practices of slave-owners in this country tended to keep mother and children together, while fathers were often sold or sent away from their families. After the emancipation, it was the woman who ran the family, while the man became weak and goal-less in the face of discrimination and repeated humiliations.

The assumption, that children in matriarchal families are, *ipso facto*, emotionally deprived, is an unwarranted one, based on an ethnocentric cultural assumption. The matriarchal family is often an extended one, including grandparents and other relatives, and the child in such a family is often more fortunate than the middle-class child who fears the loss of his parents' love each time he fails to fulfill their expectations.

From the humanistic philosophy which underlies our American Creed—our belief in the rights of all individuals—we feel that, in spite of his group affiliations, the individual needs to maintain his integrity as a rational human being. To be able to do this, he needs the knowledge of the different disciplines which have engaged the curiosity of human beings; he needs insight into his own motivations and behaviors; and he needs ample opportunity to develop skills in the utilization of his knowledge. To help the student fulfill these needs, the teacher must know his subject matter, for he cannot teach what he does not know; he must also be cognizant of the concepts of individual psychology and the dynamics of human behavior in order to help the student: (1) to understand how his emotions affect his reasoning abilities; (2) to recognize the motives which impel him in one direction rather than another; (3) to accept the needs we all have and learn how to fulfill them creatively.

Since each one of us spends much of his time interacting with people in small groups, our teachers must teach us how to do this most effectively. For this the teacher must know about the productive and psychological aspects of group dynamics, the various functional and non-functional roles which individuals assume in groups, the causes of group disintegration and the bases of group creativity.

Sociology and social psychology point out to us the functions of group memberships which place obstacles in the path of individuals who are attempting to achieve and maintain integrity and live efficiently. With such knowledge comes the responsibility to do what we can—in a general way—to minimize these obstacles and, indirectly, to help all people fulfill their potentialities. Therefore, problems of economic discrimination will concern us, and we will become involved in analyses of political and community leadership.

Teachers are in the unique position of appreciating the methods and results of science—and often being scientists themselves—while they are forever attempting to relate that science to students in their spheres of influence. This prevents them from forgetting that, in the last analysis, science is knowledge about *man*. It is man, his environment and his relation to that environment that concerns us, and in science

man must be our point of reference. That is not to say that we must always have a product in mind when we are engaged in science. It means, rather, that we must forever keep asking ourselves, "What does this mean for people—for their growth, their feelings, their living?"

Since mankind is of necessity the point of reference for the teacher, he is a natural link between science and humanity. He can keep the question forever before his students, and invite them to begin and end their studies with the thought, ". . . and what about people . . ."

It is not difficult to see that the teacher's job requires not only an integration of the social and behavioral sciences but also sophistication in all other areas of human knowledge and experience. To teach a child arithmetic without showing him its relation to economics is futile. To teach a youth French without helping him understand the universal significance of language as communication is to provide him with a weapon rather than a tool.

There is no room in the teaching profession for those who come into it thinking that it is an undemanding activity, without the danger of having to make life and death decisions, without the necessity for keeping up a constant struggle for new knowledge, new skills, new insights. Teaching is—literally—a vital function in our society. By it, we live or die.

The Teachers' Page

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PROJECT DONKEY

One of the most fascinating and intriguing series of experiments, in the behavioral sciences, concerned with both animal and human motivation and behavior, has been that in the area of electrical stimulation of the brain, known briefly as ESB. Some of the recent research in the field was reported by Ruth and Edward Brecker in *Harper's* (April, 1961).

Electrical brain stimulation was first explored in the 1930's and 1940's, by a Swiss doctor, W. R. Hess. His lead was followed by other researchers. Working at Yale, a team of three men implanted sixty-six electrodes in the brains of six animals. Depending upon where the electrode penetrated the brain, the small charge of electricity elicited a variety of responses, such as turning their heads, pawing, licking, hissing and baring

their teeth. Docile animals often became aggressive, trying to bite and scratch. Autonomic reactions, including defecation and urination, also occurred. An interesting observation was that no matter how hungry animals were, they avoided food if they knew that the current (producing a painful or unpleasant stimulation) would be turned on by approaching the food.

The electrodes used for such experiments are very fine hairlike wires, insulated so that only the brain near the tip of the electrode would be stimulated. A fraction of a millimeter shift in the position of the electrode might make a significant difference in the kind of response.

That the human brain is the control center of human behavior has long ago been established. Although the old Faculty Theory has gone the way of phrenology, modern research has established that the brain has localized areas for different functions. The human brain, as we know, consists of three basic parts or systems. The most primitive part (in terms of evolution) is the brain stem, which controls most of the reflex behavior necessary for routine survival activities. Next is the mid-brain, also relatively primitive. It is this part of the brain (particularly, the hypothalamus) that seems to contain the seat of emotions. The third is the outermost layer—the cerebral cortex. This is the most recent development, and more developed in man than in animals. Besides controlling more voluntary behavior of all kinds, it is also the seat of man's intellectual and moral apparatus. Much of man's civilized behavior involves both the cortex and the mid-brain and the two don't always "see eye to eye."

In attempting to learn more about the seat of maturation, the experiments in ESB are adding significant and fascinating knowledge. Using the "Skinner box" technique, which makes it possible for an animal to press a lever or cross a corridor for which it is rewarded with food or a sex partner, or is punished (by an electric shock which can be increased in strength), it is possible to measure the relative intensities of different

drives or needs an animal has. The hungrier or thirstier an animal is, the stronger the shock it will endure in order to get to the water or food; or the more the frequent crossings it will make. Experiments with ESB have apparently localized some of these basic centers in the brain, and at the same time further demonstrated the interrelationship between the physio-chemical functions of the various brains and the brain-control centers.

"For example, with an electrode in a brain region controlling sex function, a rat may stimulate itself (by pressing a lever which turns on the current) 2,000 times an hour. If it is then castrated, the rate gradually slows down as the level of sex hormones in its blood stream falls off. Within two weeks the rat loses all interest in the lever. But if sex hormones are later injected it starts pressing the lever again."

Probably the most interesting finding (and what it implies is not yet fully known) is that there are areas in the brain, which when stimulated by an electric current, provide pleasurable states not comparable to any physiologic stimulations. In the case of all physiologic drives a point of satiation is ultimately reached—when the animal can't eat or drink anymore. Satiation also results with electrodes placed in certain regions. But, placed in other reward regions of the brain, the animal never seems to get too much, as in the case of one monkey which stimulated itself 200,000 times in one day. At the Walter Reed Army Medical Center in Washington, D. C., an ESB marathon experiment showed rats capable of pressing levers for a continuous period of 21 days, "pausing only occasionally for 15-second snacks and sips, or brief naps. . . ."

"Were these rats ESB addicts — in the sense that they needed an additional dose to counteract the unpleasant after-effects of the previous one? Apparently not. After six or eight months of continuous self-stimulation, Dr. Olds' rats looked younger, healthier, more vigorous, and more alert than litter mates who have led ordinary lives. Between sessions the ESB rats behave normally. They

exhibit no withdrawal symptoms when deprived of their accustomed stimulation. Nor do they, like the alcoholic or narcotics habitué, have to keep increasing their dose to maintain their effect. The same mild current—usually measuring a few volts and a few thousandths of an ampere—evokes the same response after many months."

"Operation Donkey," the heading given to this *Teachers' Page*, refers to an experiment conducted with a donkey. The animal was rigged up with a collar, a prism, a photoelectric eye, a battery, and a miniaturized, transistorized circuit for sending an ESB current to a reward area in the donkey's brain. At a given angle, sunlight passing through the prism activated the photo electric eye which turned on the ESB current. "If the donkey veered in either direction or stood still, the switch turned the current off again. Thus accoutered, the joyful donkey trotted straight ahead, uphill, down dale, even across a mountain, neither straying nor lagging, to its predestined goal—a substation some five miles away." When the prism was reversed, the donkey retraced its arduous course.

The use of punishment and/or reward in controlling both animal and human behavior is as old as man. The dancing circus bear was the forerunner of Pavlov's salivating dog, as was the Inquisition's funeral pyre of modern-day brain-washing techniques. The avoidance of pain and the seeking of pleasure are key motivators to all behavior, although persons may differ with respect to what will cause them pleasure or pain and how they will react to them. Most people do not, of course, react to being burnt at the stake as did a Giordano Bruno or a Joan of Arc. Perhaps that is partly the reason for the effectiveness of brain-washing techniques in making even strong-minded men turn against themselves. But it isn't merely the inability to endure pain that explains the success of brain-washing. The fact is that by the use of Pavlovian techniques and drugs men are no longer given an opportunity, as was Joan of Arc, to exercise a choice. They do what they

are told to do because the will to do otherwise has been destroyed.

What might the long use of ESB on human beings do to the human race? To civilization?

"The hazard . . . is *not* that the behavioral scientists will misuse these techniques for personal ends. Like physicians, our psychologists adhere to a professional code of ethics . . . Existing law, moreover, makes abuse of ESB, hypnosis, drugs, sensory deprivation, or the like by an individual scientist a tort and perhaps also a crime . . .

"The real hazard arises when behavioral control techniques are taken over by others—for example, by national governments."

A warning, perhaps cynical, perhaps realistic on this very same point was expressed by Carl Rogers, clinical psychologist:

"To hope that the power which is being made available by the behavioral sciences will be exercised by the scientists, or by a benevolent group, seems to be a hope little supported by either recent or distant history. It seems far more likely that behavioral scientists, holding their present attitudes, will be in the position of the German rocket scientists specializing in guided missiles. First, they worked devotedly for Hitler to destroy the U.S.S.R. and the United States. Now, depending on who captured them, they work devotedly for the U.S.S.R. in the interest of destroying the United States, or devotedly for the United States in the interest of destroying the U.S.S.R. If behavioral scientists are concerned solely with advancing their science, it seems most probable that they will serve the purpose of whatever group has the power."

The danger from national governments bent on political power is quite apparent. Yet, there are other dangers, insidious and not quite so apparent. These come from individuals or groups who are bent on gaining economic power. We can cite, for example, the misuse of hormones by poultry raisers, the misuse of drugs in food processing, and the potential dangers from the misuse of knowledge in motivational research. Greed and lust for power are still basic drives of many human beings. Unless these traits are checked, knowledge can be abused. However, in spite of these potential dangers, it is not

suggested that there should be an end to scientific research.

The effect of ESB on the suppression of anxiety is of particular significance in the field of mental health. In experiments with the Skinner box, when the animal receives a pellet of food as a reward for pressing a lever, the lever will be pressed so long as there is no punishment associated with it, or until the animal's hunger is satiated. For example, when a loud buzzer is sounded for three minutes, followed by a painful shock, the animal eventually associates the sound with the shock and stops pressing the lever as the buzzer begins. This typical anxiety response does not take place in the case of ESB, "despite the warning and the inevitable painful shock."

Experiments with human beings, particularly those suffering from certain kinds of schizophrenia, show that ESB has the potential for accomplishing what even shock treatment and lobotomy have not been able to do—returning these individuals to a condition wherein they can benefit from clinical psychotherapy.

At present, ESB is of course too crude, too costly and too delicate a method to use on a wholesale scale, either for controlling human behavior on a large scale, or for curing mentally sick people. But, along with the newly discovered drugs affecting behavior, ESB brings us closer to understanding a little bit more about the inner workings of the human personality. Perhaps the ultimate result will be a blessing.

Instructional Materials

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NEW MATERIALS

American Heritage. Monthly publication of this magazine is a fine supplement for use in Social Studies classes. Write to American Heritage Publishing Co., 551 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

American History Films. Write to Textfilm Dept., McGraw Hill Publishing Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y., for a brochure on films for use in American History. This list includes "You Are There" TV films, the Ford Foundation's "Constitution Series," the "Air Power Series," and "The Twentieth Century."

Films For Britain. This is the title of a publication listing the best British documentary films available in the U. S. The catalog and the films may be obtained through Contemporary Films, Inc., 267 W. 25 St., New York 1, N. Y.

Film History. Teachers interested in the history of the motion picture will want a copy of Film Incorporated's catalog, "Four

Decades of Films." Write to Film Inc., 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Ill.

Economic Education. The N. Y. State Council on Economic Education has a library from which materials may be borrowed for one week. A list of materials, including a topical file of pamphlets, appears in "Teaching Aids in Economic Education: An Annotated Bibliography." Write to N. Y. State Council on Economic Education, 610 E. Fayette St., Syracuse 3, N. Y.

FILMS

Africa—Giant With a Future. 30 min. Color. Sale/rental. Educational Services, Inc., 1730 Eye Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. This is a documentary film offering a panoramic report on 16 countries of Africa south and east of the Sahara. It depicts the peoples, geography, governmental, social and economic problems of French West Africa, Liberia, Ghana, Nigeria, Cameroons, French Equatorial Africa, Belgian Congo, Angola, Northern Rhodesia, Tan-

ganyika, Zanzibar, Kenya, Uganda, and Ethiopia.

Question in Togoland. 20 min. Rental/sale. Contemporary Films, Inc., 267 W. 25th Street, New York 1, N. Y. A pictorial report showing how a U.N. supervised plebiscite brought Togoland into the newly formed state of Ghana, with a close view also of the life of this remote region.

Problems of the Middle East. 21 min. Sale/rental. Atlantis Productions, Inc., 7967 Sunset Boulevard, Hollywood 46, Calif. Depicts the basic forces molding the destiny of the Middle East. It also provides essential concepts and generalizations concerning the cultural pattern of the people of the Middle East.

The Case of Officer Hallibrand. 27 min. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service, 3 E. 54th Street, New York 22, N. Y. Realism and tragedy mark this safety drama about a typical policeman — illustrating why the wrong frame of mind can cause serious accidents.

Trees to Tribunes. 40 min. Color. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service. Describes the production of a newspaper, from the felling of trees for newsprint to editing and printing of a final edition.

Forests for the Future. 28 min. Color. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service. Tells the story of forest conservation, and the responsibilities of modern, scientific tree farmers and lumbermen.

American Shipping in Today's World. 28 min. Color. Free loan. Association Films, Inc. Depicts quite vividly the story of the American Merchant Marine. Shows how the world now more than ever before depends on its merchant fleets.

The Ages of Time. 23 min. Color. Free loan. Association Films, Inc. Reveals man's progress in telling time from the dawn of civilization to the present day. This is not only the history of timekeeping — it is the classic story of eternal, ageless

time seen through glimpses into man's past and future.

Letter to Moscow. 29 min. Free loan. Association Films, Inc., Broad at Elm, Ridgefield, N. J. Portrays an American rebuttal to Krushchev's boast that communism will triumph over free enterprise. Through the medium of one company, presents the people and ideas that have built our nation, and vividly contrasts America with Russia.

FILMSTRIPS

Pathfinders Westward. Six-part series. Each strip averages between 52-55 fr. Also available with records. Sale. Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 W. Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Ill. Series describes one of the most inspiring periods in our national history. Tells the story of the courageous pioneers and their hardships on the westward trek. Maps, dioramas, stirring music provide a fine background to the narration.

Cuba: A Dictator Falls. 41 fr. Free loan. Current Affairs Films, 527 Madison Ave., New York 22, N. Y. Overthrow of dictatorships in Latin America with reference to the revolution in Cuba is portrayed. Seen also is relation with the U. S., and political, economic, and social implications.

Our Southern Neighbors. 56 fr. Black and white. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The New York Times*, 229 W. 43rd St., New York 36, N. Y. This is a film-strip in depth, for it examines the explosive politics and undercurrents that are transforming South and Central America. It covers the Alliance for Progress, the bold new program for U.S.-Latin cooperation in the years ahead while reviewing the colonial legacy of Spain and Portugal, and the decades of political upheaval and economic backwardness of Latin America's past and present. Accompanying the film-strip is a discussion manual reproducing each frame, providing supplementary information, and supplying a general introduction.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

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Charles Brantley Aycock. By Oliver H. Orr, Jr. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1961. Pp. xviii, 394. \$7.50.

The "Educational Governor," Charles Brantley Aycock, was the most beloved North Carolinian of his generation, and he has probably been memorialized more extensively than any other historical leader of his state. This farm boy climbed the career ladder by becoming a practicing lawyer and achieving eminence by which his fame spread beyond the state for his brilliant oratory, his interest in public education, and his devotion to the Democratic Party. His life became a legend before he died, at the age of 52, delivering an address on "universal education."

Yet, Orr's work is the first full-scale biography to be written concerning this dynamic leader of the New South. It shows that the tales of Aycock's feats on the hustings before political audiences and in the courtrooms before juries began even in his childhood. As his talents matured, the tales changed to accommodate them. When he became Governor, having campaigned on a platform of white supremacy and education, his boyhood determination that illiteracy be eliminated in North Carolina and his work for local schools were linked to his gubernatorial efforts to build a state-wide public school system, and he won national fame as the "Educational Governor." One of the most effective public speakers of his age, Aycock used every oratorical trick in the bag in his role of seer and exhorter of the people of North Carolina where he established sound educational goals for the state and exerted vigorous leadership in the efforts to reach these goals.

Orr's handling of this biography is mas-

terly. His bibliography (pp. 364-384) even includes interviews. The work is a definite contribution to the educational and political history of the South.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

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The Great Adventure, America in the First World War. By Pierce G. Fredericks. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1960. Pp. 253. \$4.75.

If it is sufficient for history to be an accurate account of the past told in a well-written literary style, then this is good history. Certainly, Fredericks has proven, by this story of World War I, that history need not be dull. His writing is lively and witty, and his account of the events reads like a good novel. The work is supported by solid research and it is rich in detailed information. Here is a sample of his style. An American Marine brigade has just been given orders to take Belleau Wood.

Colonel Catlin went around to Major Benjamin Berry's battalion which was to make the assault from the west, and looked out unhappily over the 400 yards of wheat field the men would have to cross before they got to the wood. He doubted that they'd be able to do it. Most of the men—500 of them, the attack was to be made at half battalion strength—were lying down in a gully, waiting, smoking, talking. Catlin fished around for something appropriate to say to them and finally settled for, "Give 'em hell, boys."

The reader is left with the general impression of American servicemen as vigorous and dogged fighters in some of the bloodiest fighting in American history. We are also left with the impression that the author is satisfied with a military history which reaffirms a faith in the American fighting man.

But the historian also has a duty to show how events illustrate a theory, how a history of a war supports a philosophy of warfare. Unfortunately, Fredericks does not fulfill this duty. And war is too serious a matter these days for readers to be content with a detached recitation of events—no matter how witty it may be.

SYDNEY B. SPIEGEL

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The Purpose of American Politics. By Hans J. Morgenthau. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1960. Pp. xi, 359. \$5.00.

In the Western liberal tradition the public consensus directs government, and politics is a means for using public power to secure justice and freedom for the people. The American nation was established in accordance with this tradition and it has informed American politics ever since. Yet the power and prestige of America in world affairs seems to deny the meaning of American history, seems to question the purpose of American politics, and does test America's ability to apply the liberal political tradition in international relations. Professor Morgenthau, Director of the Center for the Study of American Foreign Policy at the University of Chicago, believes that the present crisis in American politics is essentially a crisis of the national purpose. There is a crisis because the United States must reformulate and apply its conception of the national purpose in a world-wide arena, and because the ideas derived from the nation's past experience are largely irrelevant to the conditions of the modern world. Therefore, the task confronting the nation is to rediscover in its policies a purpose which the nation can understand, with which it can identify itself, and upon which it can act with conscious determination.

What is the national purpose? And how is it found within national policies? The reality of the national purpose resides in the political and social history of the nation—in the con-

tinuum of actions which reveals a common and unique purpose; not a specific ideal, but a mode of procedure, a way of thinking and acting in the social sphere, a conception of the relations between the individual and society. The national purpose has always been equality in freedom: equal access to political rule and freedom from political domination. American politics provides a means by which social groups can define the substantive content of equality and freedom in accordance with their differing conceptions of an objective social order. That is, each group strives to achieve transcendent purposes derived from an objective order in an environment of equality in freedom. Free competition among groups constitutes a process of substantive renewal, which continuously rejuvenates the national purpose by the controversies over the objective order equality in freedom is to serve and over the concrete policies and institutional arrangements required for its implementation.

The present crisis in American politics is shown in the fact that political controversy no longer serves to renew the American purpose by giving it a meaning appropriate to what the times seem to require. Nowadays, the national purpose means no more than the enjoyment and improvement of the status quo. Americans today believe that the purpose of the nation is achieved; equality and freedom are sought for themselves alone; they are not directed towards a transcendental goal for the sake of which they are sought.

Moreover, the lack of a national purpose has vitally affected the American political tradition, for the politics of the nation is now based upon majoritarian democracy, which has failed to connect the national life with a goal that lies beyond what society has already achieved and, hence, can serve as its purpose. Majoritarian democracy denies that objective standards of political conduct create and regulate the conflicts of interest within society and restrain the exercise of public power. In place of such standards is the will of the majority representing political truth and goodness. Jacobin democracy, Morgen-

thau thinks, has perverted the democratic process by denying the minority the right to propose policy alternatives, by using committees to govern, thereby glossing over the differences between alternative policies in deference to majority opinion, and by allowing public opinion to define the limits within which government can operate.

As a political realist, Professor Morgenthau is not sure that the American people will find relevant issues of controversy which will clarify the nation's image of itself, and which will create a sure knowledge of its abiding interests. What, then, can be done?

The primary task is to make it clear to the world that equality in freedom still has a home in America and is still worthy of emulation. This can be done only if America has the courage and wisdom to reshape its economic, educational, and governmental systems on radically new lines. The nation has to separate in its tradition what is essential from what is ephemeral, and the test for that which is worth retaining is whether or not policies and institutions express the national determination to prevent the denial of equality and freedom in practice. Since America pursues its purpose by what it does, then the national life must be once again what it was at its inception: a model for all mankind.

HENRY M. HOLLAND, JR.

State University College of Education
Geneseo, New York

Race Relations and Mental Health. By Marie Jahoda. New York: Unesco, 1961. Pp. 48. \$.50.

Marie Jahoda's essay, *Race Relations and Mental Health*, is a thought-provoking study of the racially prejudiced person. The author raises such questions as: What underlies social prejudice? Who is prejudiced? Why is he prejudiced? How does prejudice relate to mental health? What can be done to alleviate this social problem in the foreseeable future? Miss Jahoda then answers these questions primarily from two standpoints. One aspect deals briefly with various ramifications of

thinking of those ethnic groups who characteristically involve themselves with prejudices with other ethnic groups. The second aspect concerns the individual. Here the author considers the inverse and direct relationship between positive mental health and the tendency toward prejudice.

JOSEPHINE W. HUBBELL.

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

North Africa: Nationalism to Nationhood.

By Lorna Hahn. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1960. xii, 264. \$6.

Mrs. Lorna Hahn, in a very timely work, *North Africa: Nationalism to Nationhood*, has made three contributions which are essential to understanding the nationalist movements which developed in the Maghrib.

First, she has clearly made the point that North Africa is not a completely homogeneous area, and that the three nationalist movements that evolved in Morocco, Tunisia, and Algeria were based on the separate historical experiences that those nations enjoyed. Mrs. Hahn's description of the party systems which evolved in the three areas is particularly interesting. She offers an excellent analysis of the reasons for the rise of the Neo-Destour and Tunisia's one-party system, the multi-party system which developed in Morocco and hindered that nation's fight for independence, and the Algerian FLN which represents a synthesis of parties united to oppose France. Second, because of the opportunities the author has had to interview leading North African personalities, including ex-King Muhammad V of Morocco, she has been able to provide the reader with an astute evaluation of the various national leaders. Lastly, Mrs. Hahn, writing from a point of view sympathetic to the nationalists, has explained that it was the French *colons*, not the Paris government, which hindered progressive development in Morocco and Tunisia and balked at "assimilation" in Algeria. The author's point seems to be that the *colons* have been largely responsible for the violence that has accompanied the North African fight for inde-

pendence and that it was they who prevented the French government from inaugurating programs beneficial to the North African Arabs and Berbers.

From the scholarly point of view, the book has its limitations. The author has not documented her interesting observations with footnotes, and the bibliography leaves a great deal to be desired; Mrs. Hahn has relied primarily on American, North African and French newspapers, a few United Nations documents, two dozen secondary works, and her own experience in the Maghrib. Also, her method of transliterating Arabic and Berber words does not follow standard usage among Orientalists. The book would also have benefited from a more careful proof-reading.

This work is, however, a good survey of the development of North African nationalism, particularly for those readers who are unfamiliar with the recent history of the area.

RICHARD A. ROUGHTON

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

The Dimensional Structure of Time Together with the Drama and Its Timing. By Irvin Morgenstern. New York: Philosophical Library Inc., 1960. Pp. iv, 174. \$3.75.

"A sound textbook of dramatic timing is needed," writes Mr. Morgenstern, "... there just isn't any. Such a work should have proved invaluable to me as a young man, saved me many, many years, agony, numberless disappointments. Such a work ought to prove of inestimable value to the world." With this statement midway through his work, Mr. Morgenstern offered his principles of dramatic timing that stressed the awareness and magnitude of time in every possible aspect of dramatic structure that might eliminate anguish for future playwrights.

Using himself as the prime example of an artist in need of such a text, the author wrote of early disappointments and agonies of a young playwright in a biographical introduction that was interesting as well as it was

relevant. His failure as a playwright, rather than discourage, inspired him to analyze the causes of his disappointments. A recurring cycle of events in his experiences ignited the necessary spark that guided him into a fifty-year study of the structure of time.

Mr. Morgenstern's investigation led to questions which evolved gradually into his answers or definitions. Many of his theories are clarified by vivid, personal experiences and emotions. Approximately one-half of the book is devoted to explanations and definitions of some thirty terms and phrases such as time, action, crisis, sense-perception, critical judgment, metaphysic, causality, and holism. His concepts encompass a wide area of philosophy and psychology.

After his expository chapters he begins to associate his encyclopedia of terms to the value of relationship of time in drama. This ultimately leads us to the primitive origins of drama in its role as a cultural necessity and human institution. The writer speculates upon and develops the earliest possible influences of drama and the evolution of the audience which incidentally is fascinating reading. While he unravels the theatre's past, he enforces his precepts that time provided opportunity for cyclical series of recurring events and orderly changes.

In his final section, Mr. Morgenstern explores his theories as he relates time to dramatic structure. He expounds on the sequence of time, the progression of events in proper order, and the dependence of complication, crisis, and climax upon proper timing. His advice to playwrights is not to follow predetermined or traditional patterns, but to organize the play in structural elements that create an orderly, planned series of rises of attention and suspense. The advice is sound. He offers a graphic example of the sequential changes of action in three charts that plot out by symbols and terms the orderly presentation of related events in a play.

The writer has been profoundly philosophical, theoretical, and creative, which was his intent. The reader will require some philosophical background to absorb many of his

ideas. The terms introduced in the first segment of the book are steps a student playwright must ascend slowly. Once these terms are mastered, however, the dramatist will appreciate the latter half of the book. The reader should develop an awareness that the dimensions of time in a play are the bases for dramatic organization. This awareness the author points out was remarkably displayed by Shakespeare.

RUDOLPH E. PUGLIESE

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Together We Stand. New Perspectives on French-American Relations. By Sylvan Gotshal. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1961. Pp. vii, 77. \$3.25.

The author frankly admits in his "Preface" that the book has been written "with a purpose." It "seeks to tell the story of the establishment and development of the brotherhood between France and the United States, a brotherhood born in the stress of the Revolutionary War and tempered in the furnace of time, a brotherhood which should and must endure forever." (p. vii).

The thesis is started with the French help given to the struggling colonies. Gotshal questions the validity of the analysis which claims that "France's generous aid to the new country was determined solely by self interest and opposition to England" (p. 7). He believes that "the extent of financial, military and diplomatic aid was on such a large scale, was marked by such spirited emotion and fraternal goodwill, as to be grossly disproportionate to the relative importance in the world of the thirteen little colonies" (p. 7). After noting Lafayette's contribution, he notes the acquisition of the Louisiana Territory and claims: "What place the Louisiana Territory held in the imperial plans of Bonaparte at this time was not entirely clear" (p. 12). A chapter on "Democracy and De Tocqueville" (Chapter III, 14-19) follows. The rest of the work is devoted to the Civil War, World War I and II, war in Indo-China, Helping Underdeveloped Countries, Common

Stand in Europe, Middle East Tensions, North Africa and the Meaning of Freedom, American Thinking and World Realities, Source of Inspiration and Hour of Decision.

There are no references and no bibliography. Obviously, this weak product is the child of inspiration rather than of scholarship. In fact, Gotshal should be informed that there have been numerous thorough studies devoted to the same topic, and that it has been rather definitely established why France helped the colonists, or why Napoleon got rid of the Louisiana Territory.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

William Chandler Bagley. By I. L. Kandel. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961. Pp. 131. \$3.50.

William C. Bagley, 1874-1946, was a major figure in American education during the first half of this present century. This biography, written by a man who is himself a distinguished educator and who knew Professor Bagley and worked with him for many years, was authorized and published by Kappa Delta Pi, honor society in education. The editor of Kappa Delta Pi publications indicates that the purpose of the society was two-fold: "to recognize the man who was a key figure in its (Kappa Delta Pi's) founding and in its continuous development into a leading American exponent of excellence in teachers and their professional preparation; and . . . to preserve for educational professional workers the philosophy and record of the activities of a nationally and internationally recognized scholar. . . ."

This is not meant to be a full-scale biography. The entire emphasis is upon Dr. Bagley's educational experience and his leadership throughout the first four decades of this century. It is the philosophy of the man, largely in terms of his writing, that becomes the focus of the book.

To people interested in the development of American education this will be a book of

major significance. It is written with sympathy and with insight.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State University of New York
College of Education at Cortland

The Family, Society, and the Individual. By William M. Kephart. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, c. 1961. Pp. xii, 690. \$6.75.

Professor Kephart's book is a welcome addition to the list of texts for the college family course. It is well written; it introduces the student to a very broad range of topics in the field; and it is unified around a central theme—the *family field*, a term that for Kephart denotes “the various biological, historical, legal, religious, and other institutional and personal-interactive factors which contribute to a fuller understanding of the human family.” Thus there is an appreciation of the cultural heritage of the family, both that from which our own system derives and that which in other societies has produced different systems. Likewise, there is recognition of the biological and psychological nature of man and of the sociological processes by which families operate. Primary interest centers on the American family, the healthy features of which impress Kephart more than the problems of divorce, delinquency, or moral laxity.

After the introductory Part I, Kephart proceeds in Part II to a discussion of the sexual behavior of lower animals and man, and a summary of the contributions to the American family heritage of the Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, early Christians, and Europeans. Part III is devoted to the early American family, experimental family systems (Mormon and Oneida), minority family systems (Amish, Negro, and Italian), and the present status of the family. Analyses of mate selection, dating, romantic love, and premarital sex codes occupy Part IV, and Part V is a comprehensive discussion of marital interaction: marriage laws, sexual biology, sexual adjustment, and parent-child interaction. Part VI treats divorce and de-

section, including an excellent analysis of the process of family breakdown. Throughout there is constant reference to research studies.

A final chapter, Part VII, discusses measures for strengthening the family. Kephart takes a critically sympathetic view of marriage counseling, family courts, marriage courses, and research; offers thumbnail sketches of public and private agencies at work; and analyzes the state of public apathy and financial parsimony. He emphasizes that in deciding family policies—that on divorce, for example—we must evaluate them in societal as well as in individual terms. Finally, the family, he says, must be regarded not merely as an institution responsible for social good or ill—molding personality, inculcating moral values, or fostering delinquency or discrimination, but also as a victim sometimes of the forces of the enfolding society.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

Your Life as a Citizen. By Harriet Fullen Smith, George G. Bruntz, with Ernest W. Tiegs and Faye Adams. New York: Ginn and Company, 1961. Revised Edition. Pp. 632. \$4.90.

Eighth and ninth grade teachers of citizenship education will be especially indebted to the authors of this volume for their diligent efforts in producing a work of comprehensive scope, clarity, and depth.

The authors are to be commended for the inclusion of chapters which concern subjects that are usually either not found or not well prepared in volumes of this nature. First, in the chapter entitled “Religion In America,” the student can get a brief look at the religious groups which contributed to the development of America. In an age when youth tend to believe that the machine has made America, one is happy to see this section in any book for the young reader. Secondly, there is a part entitled “Assessing Our Abilities and Skills,” which is definitely a source

of needed reading for the youth of our day, who are surrounded by an environment which emphasizes occupational success. Since the nature of the IQ, mental ability, and interest tests are discussed, students can gain insight into the nature of personal evaluation, and the choice of a realistic vocation. Thirdly, at a time when the frontiers of man continue to be the understanding of the human community, this volume instructs the student in the importance of getting along with people in the chapter entitled "Social Skills in the World of Work." Fourthly, since today's automation is replacing man and the future will have an increasing number of leisure hours, the citizen of tomorrow will need to be prepared for the unprecedented living. This book makes such an attempt in the chapter entitled "Using Leisure Time Wisely."

For the chapters which treat the more conventional areas of citizenship education, this volume presents them with lucidity and depth. An example is the series of chapters on local, state, and federal government. The first deals with the mayor-council plan, the city-manager arrangement, and other factors on the local level. The other chapters which deal with the state and federal level contain excellent reading which is interspersed with graphic descriptions of the three branches of government. To supplement the last level of authority, the authors have included the text of the Constitution at the end of the volume with explanations of clarity in the margins.

The disappointment in this volume lies in the lack of emphasis on man as a member of the international community. The culminating chapter deals with "Living in a Small World," but the concept of world citizenship is not clearly presented, nor are enough essential understandings for life in a twentieth-century world. Secondly, there is no mention of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, a potential cornerstone of international understanding. If youth can become acquainted with this work and make serious effort to implement it in their own lives, the world might be on the threshold of a new era

of peace. Thirdly, this volume does not emphasize enough the need for America to win friends throughout the world. The importance of the backward nations of the world to the United States in the United Nations must be brought to the attention of youth. Finally, a volume of this nature should give more stress to the nature of communism. As this ideology continues to spread its roots, there is increasing need for the potential citizen of the world to understand it clearly. If we picture these nations as friends, we must gain an understanding of their way of life. If we picture them as enemies, we must know more, for as one legislator has stated, "Attempting to cope with an enemy one does not understand is almost as difficult as fighting one that cannot be seen."

FRANK T. ARONE

Teaneck High School
Teaneck, New Jersey

The Eastern Hemisphere. By Harold Drummond and Fred A. Sloan, Jr. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1961. Pp. 416. \$5.20.

This geography textbook covering Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia is unique in that the text is carefully geared to the reading ability of children. The sentences are short; the wording is simple. Here is a brief example of this child-geared style:

Little manufacturing is done in Afghanistan except for handicraft industries. Few manufactured products except carpets are sold in other countries. More industries are being started in Afghanistan each year, however. Two cotton and two wool textile mills have been built.

The book is richly illustrated with photographs, physical and political maps, graphs, and diagrams. Each chapter is supported by many questions to guide the student's study and by suggested learning activities.

The teacher's manual which accompanies the text is in the form of a larger, expanded student textbook which is more convenient for the teacher than a manual in the form of a separate booklet. It contains a chapter-by-

chapter guide to the textbook, including answers to the study questions, handy pronunciation guides to place names and terms, and a supplementary bibliography.

It will make a fine teaching tool, especially in the junior high grades.

SYDNEY B. SPIEGEL

Central High School
Cheyenne, Wyoming

American Government: National, State, and Local. By William V. Holloway and Emile B. Ader. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1959. Pp. vi, 492. \$6.00.

In the long list of basic texts in American government for college classes this book will find an inconspicuous position. It is a clear, straightforward survey of the field, with few distinguishing virtues or vices. Only five of the 27 chapters deal with state and local government.

The authors indicate in the Preface that they have in mind "three main criteria: brevity, flexibility, and simplicity." These criteria have been observed all too literally. The book is almost too brief and simple for college use. It is in fact no more advanced than some of the better high school texts, but in content and appearance it would be a particularly dull book to use in high school classes. It might have some limited value as a ready reference book for teachers.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Salvator Rosa, Seventeenth-Century Painter, Poet, and Patriot. By Ottilie G. Boetzkes. New York: Vantage Press, Inc., 1960. Pp. 196. Illus. \$3.95.

The era of the High Baroque in Italy (c. 1625-75), a complex and significant period in the history of Western culture, provides the setting for this book. It was an age of greatness in many fields of endeavor, but perhaps the most stimulating and exciting legacy for us today is found in the visual dynamics of its creative artists. One of the

more colorful personalities of this period was the volatile Salvator Rosa—poet, musician, actor, rebel, and painter extraordinary—whose turbulent career is sketched with verve and obvious enthusiasm, from his birth in Naples (1615) to his death in Rome (1673). Ironically enough, Rosa, who aspired for the acclaim and status accorded the intellectual history painter, was esteemed most of all by his contemporaries and subsequent generations for his wild, proto-romantic landscapes, battle scenes and marine paintings.

In one of the more illuminating passages, the author rightfully compares Rosa's work with that of Claude Lorrain, citing a number of well-chosen opinions from various periods, to which might be added Wittkower's apt statement in his masterly *Art And Architecture in Italy 1600 to 1750*, (1958): "The eighteenth century saw in Salvator's and Claude's landscapes the quintessential contrast between the sublime and the beautiful." Wittkower includes a quotation from Sir Joshua Reynolds (not found in the Boetzkes' book) that "... Claude conducts us 'to the tranquility of Arcadian scenes and fairy land,' while Rosa's style possesses 'the power of inspiring sentiments of grandeur and sublimity.'"

Selections from Rosa's poetry accompany appropriate places in the text, and a sample page of music is reproduced. His relationships with his contemporaries and the events of his day are described with skill, although the device of manufacturing conversation may not always have the desired effect. Occasional errors occur; for example a dubious connection is made between Bernini and Pope Urban VIII on page 75. The omission of an index was unfortunate. Although the author cites her main reference sources in the Preface, the inclusion of a comprehensive bibliography would have been useful. One might consult Voss' article on Rosa in Thieme and Becker, *Allgemeines Lexikon Der Bildenden Künstler*, (1935), Vol. 29. There are fifteen black and white illustrations and two Appendix sections containing lists of pictures by Rosa with their locations

and owners in 1924 and 1957. Within its limitations, the book should fulfill the author's desire to help revive a general interest in Salvator Rosa and his times.

FRANCIS S. GRUBAR

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS PAMPHLETS

Measuring the Results of Development Projects. Prepared by Samuel P. Hayes, Jr. New York: Columbia University Press. Price: \$2.00.

The Tenth Century: How Dark the Dark Ages? By Robert Sabatino Lopez. New York: Rinehart and Company. Price: \$.75.

The State Department of Education of the State of Oregon has prepared the following list of instructional materials and bibliographies constituting a supplement to the Handbook Social Studies in Oregon Secondary Schools.

Issued by Rex Putnam, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Salem, Oregon:

International Relations.

Modern Problems.

World Cultures, One- and Two-Year Courses.

United States History and Government.

The World Today.

Price: \$.50 per copy.

Teacher's Manual and Tests. For use with *Living in Our America.* By Edward Krug and I. James Quillen. Scott, Foresman and Company, Fair Lawn, New Jersey. Copies Free.

Massachusetts Colony to Commonwealth. Edited by Robert J. Taylor. The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. Price: \$2.00.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Family Society and the Individual. By William M. Kephart. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961. Pp. xxiii, 690. \$6.75.

Studying Personality Cross-Culturally. By Bert Kaplan. Evanston, Illinois: Row,

Peterson and Company, 1961. Pp. xxiv, 687. \$8.50.

Living in Our America. By I. James Quillen and Edward Krug. Fair Lawn, New Jersey: Scott Foresman and Company, 1961. Pp. xxii, 704. \$2.97.

Magruder's American Government. Revised by William A. McClenaghan. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1961. Pp. xl, 756.

The Eastern Hemisphere. By Harold D. Drummond and Fred A. Sloan, Jr. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1961. Unit xiv, 416.

At Home in Our Land. By Delia Goetz. Boston, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company, 1961. Pp. vii, 279. \$3.20.

America and the Russo-Finnish War. By Andrew J. Schwartz. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1961. Pp. viii, 100. \$3.25.

The Schools. By Martin Moyer. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1961. Pp. xix, 446. \$4.95.

Education for Public Responsibility. Edited by C. Scott Fletcher. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1961. Pp. 192. \$4.50

Story of America. By Ralph Volney Harlow and Herman M. Noyes. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961. Pp. xxxvii, 822. \$3.51. Revised edition.

Discovering American History. By John A. Richard and Rolor E. Ray. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1961. Pp. xlviii, 520.

Building Citizenship. By Hughes and Pullen. Revised by James H. McCrocklin. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1961. Pp. xxviii, 600.

The Mideast in Focus. By Norman Greenwald. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1961. Pp. xii, 86. \$3.50.

Evaluation and Management of the Brain Damaged Patient. By Jerome S. Tobis and Milton Lowenthal. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publishers, 1961. Pp. 109. \$6.00.

The Negro in American Civilization. By Nathaniel Weyl. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1961. Pp. xxv, 360. \$6.00.

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